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ABSTRACT

This document contains three papers from a symposium on change and the consultant that was conducted during a conference on human resource development (HRD). "A Theory of Consultancy" (Daniel R. Boroto, Douglas A. Zahn, Darren C. Short) presents an emerging theory of consultancy that is based on an analysis of thousands of videotaped consultations and contains the following elements: structure; relationship; attitude; experience; language; and technical content. "The Method of Narrative Change Accounting" (Matti Laitinen, Ville Nurmi, Kari E. Nurmi) outlines an eclectic method for describing organizational change processes that adapts elements of social psychology, the theory of social action, ethnography, film theory, and oral historical research. "Colleges of Education and Internal Consultants" (Gene L. Roth) provides an overview of the literature on internal consulting and offers the following advice to faculty members interested in building skills and knowledge in the role of internal consultant: behave like an external consultant; be proactive and aggressive at least 25% of the time; focus on the job to be done; be your own person; adopt a collaborative approach based on empathy, communication, and participation; and recognize the political and ethical issues of tackling certain internal consulting assignments. The papers contain reference sections. (MN)

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Symposium 43

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A Theory of Consultancy

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Professionals are increasingly finding themselves in the consultants' role. The advice available to them from consultancy "experts" is frequently anecdotal. This paper presents an emerging theory of consultancy based on the analysis of thousands of videotaped consultations. The theory contains six units: structure, relationship, attitude, experience, language, and technical. The empirical evidence and theoretical foundations of all six are described, together with how they interact. Implications for HRD are offered.

Keywords: Consulting, Consultants, Theory-Building

Consultancy and definitions

Consultancy is an increasingly significant activity within organizations. For example, HRD trainers' roles are changing with greater emphasis being placed on consultancy in organization change, organization design, individual and career development, and performance improvement (McLagan, 1996).

Despite numerous published articles, a steady flow of conference presentations, and several useful books (e.g. Block, 1981; Schein, 1999) on consulting, the basis for these publications seems to be the personal experiences and impressions of the authors. Although the insights gleaned from practicing consultants can be valuable, the very nature of the observations on which such insights are based is unsystematic and subject to selective attention and selective memory. Thus, they fail to meet the criteria for an empirically based theory.

In this paper, we propose a systematic approach to consulting based on analyses of over two thousand videotaped consultations of novice to very experienced (defined as over 20 years of consulting practice) consultants in the areas of HRD, HRM, statistics, psychology, economics, information technology, and instructional technology. The theory described here is a refinement of ideas presented at a conference seven years ago (Boroto, 1992). The components of the theory are grounded in empirical and theoretical work in personality and social psychology, psychotherapy, and communications. We have demonstrated that the observations within the theory can be reliably made (r's from .85 to .96, for multiple populations with sample sizes greater than 40). Components of the theory have been field tested over the past 20 years in graduate level consultancy skills classes and with practicing consultants.

This theory differs from the work of Block (1981) and Schein (1999) both in focus and in substance. For example, both Block and Schein focus on practical suggestions from their personal experiences from which theory can be inferred. We articulate a theory based on theoretical and empirical work with specific application principles from which a broad range of consulting applications can be inferred. Block defines a consultation as a conversation to change or improve a situation where one has no direct power. Schein defines a consultation as a form of helping relationship. We define a consultation as any conversation with a purpose and intended result. Block focuses on gaining leverage. Schein focuses on skillfully moving between the helping roles of *expert*, *doctor*, and *process consultant*. We focus on creating a situation to enhance a client's informed choices.

This paper will follow the structure of Torraco's (1999) paper on a theory of knowledge management. Four definitions are central to what follows:

- *Consultancy* is any conversation with a purpose and intended result. The power of this definition is its simplicity, its functionality, and its specificity. This definition provides consultants with a place to go when they get lost during a consultancy. They simply ask, "What is my purpose and intended result?",

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- A *client* is someone who invites a consultant to participate in a conversation with a purpose and intended result;
- A *consultant* is a person who agrees to participate in a conversation with a purpose and intended result. Note: the specific roles the client or the consultant assumes within the consultation are defined in what we will later describe as the "wanted and needed conversations" and the "willing and able conversations." Negotiating roles based on wants, needs, willingness, and ability enhances flexibility of role definitions and provides a greater breadth of creative questions and solutions; and
- An *effective consultation* is one where the wants and needs of the client were identified and the consultant was willing and able to address the client's wants and needs with an implementable plan; the plan was implemented; and results of the implementation stand up to external scrutiny.

Theoretical base

A consultation is a complex, multidimensional interaction. There exists the relationship between the consultant and the client, the structure of the process they work through, the attitudes of each participant, the effects of the language they use, the effects of their experiences during the consultancy, and the technical issues they work through. Those units draw from the following disciplines that provide the basis of this paper - human communication, psychology (mainly, personality theory and social psychology) and psychotherapy, and epistemology. These are briefly summarized here.

Human communication theory. Communication theory emerged from the academic disciplines of social psychology, sociology, and anthropology, and originated from four lines of inquiry: the study of rhetoric and public address; propaganda and media effects; transmission and reception of information; and group dynamics and interpersonal attribution and interaction (Heath & Bryant, 1992).

Of the individual theories under the umbrella term "communication," two are of particular relevance to consultancy. The first is action-oriented language theory with its concentration on performance (Austin, 1962), where meaning is viewed as inseparable from intention, and the key to successful communication is the sender's ability to communicate his or her intentions. The second is communication systems (Fisher, 1982), which incorporates systems and communication theories to view relationships as complex, interdependent, dynamic, self-adjusting, and goal-oriented, and where each person is viewed as a communication system as well as part of many other systems, and communication events transpire in the context of each system (Heath & Bryant, 1992).

Psychology and psychotherapy. The theoretical units of consultancy draw from four psychological theories: social penetration theory, which describes the process whereby people come to know one another in varying degrees of detail and intimacy (Altman & Taylor, 1973); social exchange theory, which postulates how people negotiate the rules and requirements of each relationship (Roloff, 1987); social learning theory, which considers the interaction between people and the environment and views behavior as being directed towards goals and outcomes projected into the future (Rotter, 1954); and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1980). The units also draw on psychotherapy, and in particular the relationship between the therapist (consultant) and client (Rogers, 1967; Horvath & Luborsky, 1993).

Epistemology. Although the academic discipline of epistemology is a formal branch of philosophy that addresses the methods, limits, and extent of human knowledge (Webster, 1988), individuals develop personal epistemologies or "world views" that manifest themselves in beliefs, attitudes, and selective attention and perception. The formal epistemology that we draw from is based on such constructivists as Kelley (1955) and Maturana (1976). From a constructivist perspective, consultancy occurs in a context of human social interactions, which constitute and are constituted by communication. These interactions produce and reproduce the social structures and actions people know as reality (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Both parties in a consultation are dynamic interpretive processors who form impressions of the other. Their "epistemologies" can be operationalized by studying the number and quality of the consultant's and client's constructs (Kelley, 1955). Those impressions and constructs influence the attitudes and experiences of both parties, as highlighted by the individuality and commonality corollaries of Kelley's theory. In addition, the process of ascribing or attributing meaning to an experience or event occurs through the process of making distinctions that provide the essence of both language and theory (Efran, Lucans, & Lucans, 1990; Maturana, 1976).

The Need for a Theory of Consultancy

Campbell (1990) described seven roles of theory based on a synthesis of the assertions of Dubin, Cronbach, Landy, Vasey, and Whetten. These can be used to justify the need for a specific theory, in this case of consultancy. Space limitations have meant that all seven cannot be addressed in this paper; three are:

Defining applied problems. Theory provides a means for identifying and defining applied problems. Breakdowns occur in consultancy, and a theory allows the consultant to analyze those breakdowns by identifying sources of potential problems. At a macro-level, theory advances the effectiveness and reliability of consultations and informs the education and development of consultants; and at an individual level, theory allows consultants to analyze their personal performance and development needs.

Evaluating solutions. Theory provides a means for prescribing or evaluating solutions to applied problems. A theory of consultancy would not only identify consultancy problems but also offer solutions, a means of evaluating those solutions, and strategies for systematically improving practice. To a consultant, that may mean anticipating issues likely to arise in a forthcoming consultancy and planning for them, or it may mean with hindsight analyzing a past consultancy episode and using the theory to identify and evaluate solutions to any problems experienced.

Interpreting future research. Theory provides a means by which new research data can be interpreted and coded for future use. As the number of consultants rises and the amounts spent on consultancy increase, the need for empirical research into effective consultancy practices becomes more important. A well-specified, empirically based theory of consultancy would provide a structure for researching consultancy, allow for research findings to be interpreted within one theoretical framework, and allow for research findings to be combined to provide a more complete picture of consultancy.

Methodology for Theory Building

According to Torraco (1999), Dubin (1978) provides a comprehensive methodology for theory building that is particularly relevant for applied fields such as education and management, and is frequently used as a template for building theories in the behavioral sciences. The first five phases represent the theory-building component, and the last three phases cover the testing of the theory through empirical research. The first two phases are addressed in the next section of this paper, and subsequent papers will cover the remaining phases

A Theory of Consultancy

Units of the theory. The units of the theory are the concepts or building blocks from which the theory is constructed. There are six units offered in this theory: structure, relationship, attitude, language, experience, and technical. Figure 1 presents the six units in a rudimentary model illustrating their relative relationship to one another. Note the central role that attitudes play in the process and outcome of a consultation and the interactive relationship between attitudes and each of the other five theoretical units. Note also that all the interactions between the units occur within the context or medium of the relationship. Thus, the quality of the relationship either facilitates or impedes the smooth interaction of the units of the consultation. The six theoretical units are described below.

Structure. The structural domain provides a road map for an effective consultancy session. It covers the essential active ingredients and their approximate chronological order. The structure unit needs to be: a) systematic, in that the active ingredients of the consultancy appear at the appropriate times in the consultancy; and b) complete, in that all the necessary ingredients are included.

Five main active ingredients influence the effectiveness of consultancy in the structural domain: wants, needs, willingness, ability, and agreement regarding the specification of time. In our experience, the greatest impediment to an effective consultation is omitting from the consultancy structure the alignment of a client's wants and needs, and the conversation required to align these wants and needs with the consultant's willingness and ability to effectively attend to them. When a consultant provides what is wanted and not needed, he provides something without enduring value. Delivering what is needed but not wanted will almost always produce hostility directed at the consultant, an unwillingness to openly consider consultant input, and may result in the premature

cessation of the consulting relationship. [Note: in absence of an acceptable way of dealing with sexist language, "he" and "she" will be used interchangeably. We hope this will not be a distraction for the reader.]

A second useful distinction is between what the consultant is willing to do and what the consultant is able to do. It is important to understand that a consultant is not able to do something by virtue of physical limitations but may be not willing to do other things for a multitude of reasons including legal and ethical reasons, as well as reasons of preference. In many cases, the consultant and the client must also determine what the client is willing and able to do.

An effective wanted and needed conversation results in stated "conditions for satisfaction" - *a priori* specifications that define the intended outcome of the consultancy. The goal of a complete wanted and needed conversation is to identify all conditions for satisfaction, stated so they are observable and measurable, and to agree to collaborate to achieve them. Failure to identify *all* conditions for satisfaction often leads to the failure of the consultation.

The final active ingredients (although, of necessity, the first to be addressed chronologically) consist of agreeing on the length of time for the meeting and agreeing on priorities. Priorities are set on the basis of importance of a goal as well as urgency. Thus, a more urgent but less important goal may be addressed first if sufficient time is available later to address the more important, less urgent goal.

Relationship. Whereas communication theorists once viewed communication as being between a sender and a receiver, all but a few now talk of dynamic audiences, communication partners, and interactants. Similarly, context is increasingly seen as having a major impact on communication, where that context is both the place or conditions under which communication transpires and the relationship between the communicants (Heath & Bryant, 1992). By including relationship as a unit of the theory, we assert that the quality of consultancy is directly related to the quality of the relationship between the consultant and the client. That assertion is supported by research in psychotherapy showing the quality of the therapist-patient relationship as a more powerful explanatory variable of the success of psychotherapy than any variable other than patient diagnosis (Horvath & Luborsky, 1993).

We assert that effective consultant-client relationships are characterized by two components: an absolute commitment to tell the truth and agreed-on goals for the relationship. We will describe each component briefly. The truth in this case is not a Universal Truth, but deals instead with the intention to disclose fully. One can be inaccurate and tell the truth if one is unaware of the inaccuracy. There is research evidence to support the link between quality relationships, trust, and telling the truth (Millar & Rogers, 1987). Similarly, the importance of truth is highlighted by social penetration theory (Altman & Taylor, 1973), which argues that disclosure and openness results in positive communication and positive relationships.

The second component of an effective consultant-client relationship is having agreed-on goals. Social exchange theory postulates that people negotiate rules and requirements of each relationship (Roloff, 1987). Morton, Alexander, and Altman (1976) also argued that a viable relationship requires a consensual definition of, and ground rules for, the relationship. Note though that agreed-on goals does not imply that the consultant and client must share the same goals: they can have different goals but the goals cannot be mutually exclusive; that is, achievement of one party's goals precludes the achievement of the other party's goals.

Attitude. The consultant is always implementing, consciously and non-consciously, the attitudes that she has toward the client, consultancy, the consultant's roles and responsibilities, and the type of issue she is dealing with. We therefore assert that the quality of a consultant-client relationship is directly related to the attitudes of the consultant, and that those attitudes can facilitate the relationship or establish barriers in the relationship. We recognize that clients and consultants alike enter consultations with a wide range of attitudes about the situation, themselves, and each other. We focus on the consultant's attitudes for two reasons. First, we have found that consultant focus on client attitudes provides a significant distraction to the consultant and impedes the progress of the consultation. Secondly, there is a large body of literature in social psychology indicating the existence of an attributional bias to externalize responsibility when a situation is going badly and to internalize responsibility when a situation is going well. Thus, when consultations are difficult, consultants subject to this attributional bias are likely to blame clients for being *difficult* and to diminish their effectiveness.

Attitudes are assumptions, beliefs, characterizations, points of view, opinions, expectations, and positions. Some may be long-held and general about consultancy, others may exist from the historical context of a specific consultancy episode where both the consultant and client have leftover attitudes about each other, the issues at hand, their respective abilities, etc. Role expectations provide another source, where the consultant and client have expectations of each other's roles.

Attitudes can be positive or negative, by facilitating or impeding the progress of the consultancy. For example, the consultant attitude of "the client knows his or her situation better than anyone else" is likely to facilitate progress, whereas "I am the expert and am here to provide solutions" could impede.

Of primary importance is the attitude held by the consultant toward the client and toward the consultant's role. This could be usefully termed the consultant's operational philosophy. For example, does the consultant enter a client relationship with the attitude that he or she must "must have all the answers" or that "the consultant must be available all the time"? Such attitudes can affect the quality of the relationship. Similar examples exist of the consultant's attitudes toward the client.

Given how attitudes influence behavior, raising them to a conscious level is important (Devito, 1986). However, many present attitudes are outside a consultant's awareness, and becoming aware of them requires a high level of courage and commitment. Scrutinizing one's own attitudes can be confronting, embarrassing and personally painful. Because of the discomfort involved and the nature of psychological defenses that operate reflexively, consultants often find it helpful to work backwards in the process by identifying behaviors, including verbal statements, and raising the question, "What beliefs, attitudes, characterizations, or opinions must be present for a behavior to have occurred or to have been omitted?" (See Figure 1.)

Note that in the above statements, we have not asserted that there is one set of attitudes that best fits all consultant-client situations. We do however argue that the effective consultant must be maximally aware of her attitudes because those attitudes are expressed in all aspects of the consultancy to some extent.

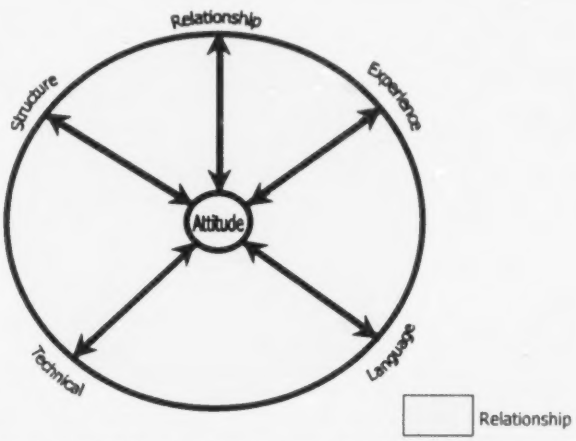

Figure 1. A model for the relationships among the theoretical units of a consultation.

Experience. One aspect of the consultancy process is the awareness of experience, or the "experiencing of experience." The consultant's moment-to-moment experience within a consultancy meeting can provide a valuable source of information if the consultant can access that information non-defensively. Effective consultants are therefore required to be "congruent" by accurately matching their experience with their awareness as they take full advantage of experience as the most immediately accessible (to the consultant) of all the units in the theory.

The two sources of experience information available to the consultant are cognitions and feelings. Cognitions are thoughts, some of which may appear unrelated or even random. Feelings here refer to emotions and physiological experiences, but not to perceptions, interpretations, or evaluations. For example, "I feel angry" is an emotion; "I feel nauseous" is a physiological sensation; "I feel that you are an idiot" is a judgment, perception, or evaluation. Whenever the consultant finds thoughts running through her mind that are evaluative, judgmental, or self-concerned, these thoughts interfere with the relationship and form a barrier to effective consultancy.

As the consultant becomes more competent at recognizing his experience, he becomes more aware of his anxiety, anger, upset, and defensiveness: four examples of experience likely to have a particularly negative effect on the consultancy. Each can be understood and overcome within the consultancy context: anxiety by focusing on the present and reducing self-consciousness by concentrating on the client; anger by attending to the vulnerability that is most likely generating it; upset by identifying its source - either in unfulfilled expectations, blocked goals,

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disingenuous interactions, or broken agreements; and defensiveness by the consultant maintaining an awareness of his commitment to getting the job done, as opposed to managing impressions.

A consultant may also find himself in what we term an "emotional cloud." This happens in situations when emotions and feelings are so deeply involved that rational dialogue is lost. One possible emotional cloud is anxiety. As the Yerkes-Dobson law states, performance increases as anxiety increases up to an optimum point beyond which performance declines rapidly (Warburton, 1979). In such situations the most prudent action is for the consultant to withdraw from the situation, agreeing another time to return to the conversation.

Note that whereas the consultant's experiences are available directly to him, the client's can only be hypothesized by the consultant and must be validated through conversation with the client.

Language. Language is vital to human communication. Through the words chosen, the consultant creates, manages, and shares her interpretation of reality. Those are the tools of communication that provide the consultancy episode with texture and specificity, and allow both the consultant and the client to make distinctions. Those words are therefore a key to identifying the attitudes of both the consultant and the client for, as Berlo (1960) asserted, their meaning lies in the people and not in the words themselves. Words can therefore augment or impede the efficiency of consultancy. When used masterfully words provide clarity, certainty, and velocity of action (that is, action characterized by direction and force).

Action-oriented language theory views communication as a function of intention: "we communicate to influence - to affect with intent" (Berlo, 1960, p. 12). Intention allows for systemization, which in turn allows for something to be produced reliably. Consultancy consists of a combination of speech acts, actions in language which can be classified into five categories: assertives or claims; directives or requests; commissives or promises; expressives; and declarations (Austin, 1962). These are used in four different conversations at different stages of the consultancy: initiative conversations; and conversations for possibility (or understanding), performance, and closure (Ford & Ford, 1995). In our experience, the key language components for effective consultancy are: expressing conditions for satisfaction during the conversation for possibility (covered under the structure unit); making agreements through requests during conversations for performance; dealing with complaints and making effective apologies; and listening.

Requests and agreements are the most useful form of language for producing actions and results (Austin, 1962). They should be based on clearly defined conditions for satisfaction. Within consultancy, granted requests form the basis of agreements between the consultant and client designed to lead to the fulfillment of the conditions for satisfaction. Denied or counter-offered requests lead to a continuation of the conversation for performance. One of the most common reasons for breakdown in consultancy is a lack of rigor in conversations for performance, by failing to reach agreements, often because one or both parties assumes the other understands the required actions without making them explicit.

Consulting breakdowns often occur around complaints. A complaint is only valid when an agreement has been broken. When that happens the appropriate action is an effective apology. An effective apology has two parts: the acknowledgment of a broken agreement and the inconvenience caused; and the implementation of corrective action. Perhaps the most direct and effective response to an invalid complaint is that of asking the other person whether they wish to make a request.

Finally, perhaps the most useful observation about effective communication is that what is important is not what we say as much as what the other person hears. Often we ignore the realization that we each hear through the filters of our experience and personal histories. Thus, to communicate effectively: listen to what we say to ensure that we say what we intend; and listen for what the other person is hearing.

Technical. This unit covers the technical content of the consultancy, which takes two forms: the knowledge and expertise expected from the consultant's discipline (statistics, management, engineering, etc); and technical consulting issues concerned with completing the structure of consultancy which may not normally be part of the consultant's discipline (e.g., the need for HRD consultants to understand data analysis). The quality of the former is established by the discipline which generally has agreed-upon standards. The variety and depth of those standards means they cannot be covered in this paper, instead we will simply point out that the quality of the information disseminated in the technical domain is a necessary condition for effective consulting. The quality of the content is not, however, sufficient unless one believes that successful consulting can occur without implementation.

Laws of interaction. The relationships among the concepts (units) of a theory are described in the theory's laws of interaction (Dubin, 1978). The laws of interaction show how changes in one or more units of the theory influence the remaining units. The interaction in this proposed theory are significant given how each of the units

are interrelated - for example, effective consultancy results in part from a quality relationship, which is influenced by the attitudes of the consultant, which are identifiable from the consultant's experiencing and from analysis of the consultant's language. Given the multiple relationships between the units, we have identified here what we believe to be the three main interactions among the theory's units.

1. *From an ideological perspective, attitude is the most fundamental unit, influencing (and in turn being influenced by) relationship, experience, and language.* Attitudes are the consultant's world view - her beliefs, characterizations, and expectations about consulting, the client, and herself. These attitudes affect the quality of the consulting relationship by limiting and shaping attention and perception. Attitudes are expressed through language, and in turn the language used interacts with attitudes. These language-attitude interactions contribute to the consultant's moment-by-moment experiences which in turn are interpreted using language (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).
2. *From a utility perspective, language drives consultancy through interactions with the other units.* Three units are observable: structure, language, and technical. The other three are inferred: relationship, attitude, and experience. For example, attitudes are inferred directly from language, or can be inferred from structure and validated using language. Similarly, what the consultant experiences is expressed through language.
3. *From a systems perspective, consultancy requires the systematic and coherent application of all six units, and as such each is necessary but not sufficient. Failure to pay attention to any one unit will threaten the effectiveness of the consultancy.* An optimal consultation requires a consultant to pay attention to all six units.

Implications for Future Research

The first two stages of Dubin's methodology for theory building have been completed using a combination of existing theories in psychotherapy, psychology, and human communication, as well as existing writings on consultancy. The theory has also benefited greatly from the analysis of thousands of videotaped consultations and discussions with hundreds of consultants from various disciplines. The theory has also been refined through training consultants, and to date has been validated through its successful use in such training programs. The next stage is to complete the final phases of Dubin's methodology by conducting empirical research. Part of that research will test the interactions asserted in this paper. This project is underway.

Future research is also needed to assess the boundaries of the theory, particularly in terms of disciplines and culture. To date, the theory has been developed from theories and practice in North America and the United Kingdom, and has been applied with consultants from HRD, HRM, management, statistics, and economics. Research is required to determine the boundaries of the disciplines to which it applies and to ascertain the impact of different national cultures on its utility.

Implications for HRD

The theory is proposed for application to all disciplines, and so should benefit HRD consultants in similar ways to consultants from other fields. The intention is that HRD consultants will experience greater effectiveness in their consultancy work as a result of paying attention to the six units described in this paper and their inter-relationships. However, the theory also has a particular two-fold significance to HRD. First, the theory has already been used successfully as the basis of training HRD consultants in a UK public sector HRD team, and may therefore be of interest to practicing HRD consultants and HRD teams whose trainers are shifting over to more of a consultancy role. (The use of the theory to train HRD practitioners will form the basis of a future article.) Secondly, HRD practitioners may be interested in the implications of this theory for the training of consultants, and a process for training consultants in the application of this theory is currently being evaluated prior to submission for future publication.

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The Method of Narrative Change Accounting

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Our purpose is to develop a method for describing organizational change processes. We believe that there is a need for this kind of method. Especially, many case study reports could offer a deeper understanding to the reader if they would present change narratives. Our theoretical background is eclectic. Elements are adapted from social psychology and the theory of social action, i.e. ethogeny. In addition, the sources for the current method development have been the various practices of ethnography, film theory and oral historical research.The method of narrative change accounting has been applied in one industrial organization. The case was an assembly workshop producing electric light systems. During the change process the personnel transformed their organization from a traditional single-vacancy organization to flexible and self-directive groupwork. Experiences extracted from the case are discussed, and implications for the research and practice of HRD are recommended.

Key words: Narrative Accounting, Organizational Change, Qualitative Research

During recent years, the case study approach has become a popular research method, especially in the organization development. However, there are only a few written and published change narratives. Most of the case study reports do not include descriptions of change processes; there are only descriptions or measurements of the situation before and after the intervention.

Why do we need organizational change narratives? First, there are problems in treating an organizational change as achievable through rational, planned strategies. Human systems do not behave in a rational and linear way (Gustavsen, 1992, 1996; Senge 1990; Tosey & Nicholls ,1999). As Marris (1974) has said, all real changes involve loss, anxiety and struggle, i.e. if we do not describe the process of change, we neglect much information. This also militates against the principles of learning (e.g. Tosey & Nicholls, 1999).

It is difficult to understand and evaluate the meaning of change if there is not enough information about the process that has preceded it. An organizational change might involve painful episodes which have a negative effect on the way people experience renewals (Harrison, 1995; Noer 1993). On the other hand, participatory intervention strategies might even produce commitment and positive evaluations of unwelcome changes (Sulander, 1992). Therefore, we believe that there is a need for methods to describe organizational change processes as narratives. In this paper we present the method which we are developing in Finland. We also demonstrate the way we have applied it in describing one organizational change process.

Purpose. The present study aims to clarify the method of narrative change accounting: the premises, the theoretical and practical starting points, and finally the application of the method. The method cannot be evaluated critically based only on the viewpoint of one empirical case. Rather this study offers innovative elements into the methodological discussion within HRD and related fields.

Background Of The Method

The most important background is the theory of social action, i.e. ethogeny by Harré and Secord (1972), later especially Harré (1979, 1985, 1994). Also *ethnography* (Eräsaari 1995, Hammersley 1992, Pratt 1986, Schwartzman

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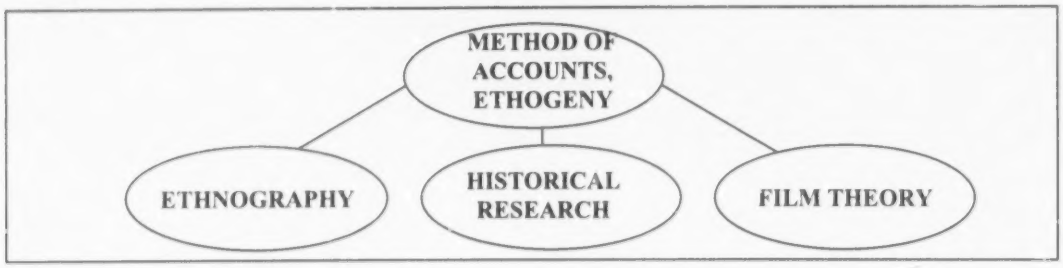
1993), *film theory*, (Arijon 1976) and *historical research* (Dunaway 1992, Thompson 1988 and Yow 1994) (Figure 1) have been applied in the framework of the narrative change accounting.

Ethogeny is quite an old, yet still interesting and distinctive social psychology approach. The birth of ethogeny dates back to the year 1972, when Harré and Secord published the book *The Explanation of Social Behavior*. It became the declaration for a new discipline. This book can be seen as a part of social psychology's crisis discussion in the 70s. In Figure 1 Theoretical background of the method of narrative change accounting.



This discussion one of the main themes was the question of the position of laboratory experiments: at that time the majority of the studies in social psychology were based on experiments in laboratory settings (Uotila & Ylijoki, 1984). Harré and Secord (1972) criticized this kind of understanding of human beings, based on the idealization of modern natural science exactitude and its mechanistic model of man.

The motto of ethogeny is: "for scientific purposes, treat people as if they were human beings" (Harré & Secord 1972, 84). This demand clearly demonstrates ethogeny's effort to criticize the dominating paradigm through irony, and to emphasize the need for a new research approach. As the word ethogeny is quite similar to ethology, which means researching animal behavior in natural environments, not in a zoo or a laboratory. Parallel ethogeny means researching human activity in ordinary life situations: not in laboratories but on the streets, in home, in cafés and in lecture rooms. (Harré 1974.) The highly ambitious purpose of ethogeny is to explain why people act as they act. According to Harré and Secord (1972), human activity is based on meaning giving, a human being is seen as active and self-directive. On the other hand, personal freedom is not absolute. Social system controls human activity in various ways. (Myllyniemi 1998.)

As a research approach ethogeny is obscure. In addition, there are only a few empirical studies using ethogenian methods. Despite of this fact, we have found its central concepts useful and we have applied the concepts of *episodes, accounts and negotiations* in our research. Harré and Secord (1972) define *episode* as any natural division of social life (from buying chocolate to studying at the university). The contents of social episodes do not include only overt behavior, but also the thoughts, feelings, intentions and plans of the participants. *Accounts* are the actor's own statements about why (s)he performed as (s)he did and what social meanings (s)he gave to the actions of her/himself and others. (Harré and Secord 1972). Negotiation is the process through which the researcher and actors try to find a common account. They try to answer to question: what happened or what is common interpretation? The absolute truth cannot always be met and the possibility of endless reinterpretation or the possibility that there is no common account must be accepted (Harré and Secord 1972).

The Description of Narrative Change Accounting

In this chapter we describe the method of narrative change accounting. The production of change narrative includes seven phases: writing the opening story, describing the context of research, writing a master story, gathering accounts, writing a change story, negotiating for a change story and editing the change story (Table 1).

Opening story. In addition to using the data collection methods of ethnographers (e.g. participant observation) we have applied their way of telling opening stories. Opening story is a narrative which describes researcher's access to the field. and operates as a prelude to, and commentary on, what follows (Pratt 1986, 42). We have included it in our method, because stepping into a setting for the first time might be the most significant phase of the entire change process (Neumann 1997, Scwartzman 1993). The surprises, differences, misunderstandings and such that occur in the first encounters may later foreshadow major concerns and issues in a change process and its documentation.

We have also adopted the ethnographers' way to write an opening story by presenting the researcher as a person (Eräsaari 1995, Pratt 1986.) As we experimented with different modes of narration, it became clear that writing from the view of the first person "I" was a way of allowing readers to follow the researcher through the narrative.

Describing the context of research. All of the groups that an organizational ethnographer may study will be composed of specific individuals with particular roles, interacting with each other on specific occasions. Depending upon the size and complexity of an organization, just trying to describe the various parties and gatherings that make up a setting can in itself be a daunting task. (Scwartzman 1993.) It is also important to take the participants' accounts into consideration and to describe the context as they see it.

Table 1
The phases of producing change narrative (Laitinen 1998).

PHASE	THE CONTENT OF PHASE
Writing the opening story	Describing the researchers' access to the field
Describing the context of research	Describing the place where the change occurs
Writing a master story	1. Gathering data connected with the change process 2. Selecting episodes from the data 3. Listing episodes in chronological order
Gathering accounts	1. Choosing the key episodes 2. Gathering accounts from people who participated in the episodes
Writing a change story	Correcting and completing the master story with the data of the accounts
Negotiating for a change story	1. Reading of the story by those who participated in the episodes 2. Discussing, how the change story will have changed to reflect the reality and the experiences of the participants
Editing the change story	Applying parallel story-telling

Writing the master story. The first core phase in the production of the change process description is to write a master story. As the name implies, a master story is like a master shot in a film. Instead of using a single camera, we use a single viewpoint, from which the event is recorded/presented in its entirety (Arijon 1976). This phase contains three sub-phases: gathering the data connected with the change process, selecting episodes from the data and listing them in a chronological order. It is not yet necessary to include all details in the master story: the main aim of this phase is to present the sequence of episodes.

The methods to collect data depend on the nature of the study. It is possible to use qualitative interviews, videotaping and documentation, such as the field notes of the researcher and participants and different kinds of reports. From our point of view, the action research approach undoubtedly provides the best access to the processes under study (Gummesson 1991 and 1993).

In order to be able to treat people as human beings, it must be possible to accept their commentaries on their actions, though revisable, as authentic reports of phenomena.

Gathering of accounts. The current phase means that the researcher chooses the key episodes from the master story and then interviews the individuals who have participated in the episodes. The selection of the key episodes should reflect what the participants feel as important. The key episodes should also have some meaning for the whole change narrative - they should carry the plot or they should include some kind of turning point of the change process. The aim is to get a close contact with the participants' and record their interpretations of the change processes and especially of the key episodes.

Writing change story. This phase refers to correcting and completing the master story with the data of the accounts. It is also one of the most important phases in analyzing the data. Accounts, observations and documents are processed together in order to get a narrative which would describe, how the change process has proceeded and how the participants have experienced it.

The model of how this phase works looks like history writing, especially oral history writing (Thompson 1988, Yow, 1994). If we consider, e.g. the first oral historian -

Thucydides - who sought out people to interview and used their information in writing the History of the Peloponnesian war, we notice that our method is quite similar: we combine and critically evaluate information which we have received from different sources.

In practice, the negotiation phase consists of two sub-phases. The first sub-phase is the reading of the story by those who participated in the episodes. The second one is discussing, how the change story will have changed to reflect the reality and the experiences of the participants as well as possible.

Editing the change story. The parallel story-telling in is one of the most frequently used forms of film-editing. We have applied it to our change story because it covers a great number of possibilities in the interaction of two narrative lines. Where the degree of knowledge shared between the characters of the story, or between the film and its audience is variable the alternatives can be seen as those in which (Arijon 1976): 1) both story lines support each other, and the data that both contribute (alternately) builds up the story; 2) in one line, the movement or intention is kept the same, while on the other the reactions to that steady repetition are varied; 3) the characters involved in both narrative lines are unaware of what the other group is doing, and only the audience has all the facts; and 4) the information given in both narrative lines is incomplete, so that the characters have all the facts, but the audience is purposely kept in the dark, to stimulate its interest.

Parallel film-editing is based on the fact that when we are told a story we unconsciously want to know two things: what action is going on and how the people are reacting to that action (Arijon 1976). If the storyteller forgets to keep track of those two things, his audience will be confused or insufficiently informed. Most of the film-takes contain action and reaction within the length of the shot. Witness this example where two shots are used:

shot 1: the hunter moves his rifle from side to side (action) and fires (reaction)

shot 2: a flying (action) bird is suddenly hit and falls (reaction).

But if we showed shots 1 and 2 without grouping the actions and reactions, our understanding of what is going on would not be as effective as if we grouped them as follows (Table 2). The alternation of shots: shot 1 - shot 2 - shot 1 - shot 2, is known as parallel film-editing (Arijon 1976).

Table 2
Parallel film editing.

the example of parallel film editing	the structure of parallel film editing
the hunter moves his rifle from side to side, aiming off screen	shot 1: action
a bird is flying in the sky	shot 2: action
the hunter fires his rifle	shot 1: reaction
the bird is hit and falls	shot 2: reaction

An Empirical Case: The Profit Center Five in Idman

The opening story. In this quotation we present two first paragraphs of the opening story. They describe the researcher's access to the development project and the first meeting between researchers and company representatives:

'It was in March 1992 when I first time heard about the factory of Idman. At that time I was working as a research assistant in a group which was studying groupwork. My forewoman told me that we were contacted by the enterprise and that they were suggesting a meeting. She said that I should also participate, because my master's thesis in adult education was almost completed and I would need a job after graduation.

Besides us (researchers), there were two production managers from Idman at the first meeting. The production managers told us about Idman and their units. Two factories had been combined, and the Mikkeli factory, whose business had to be suspended, transferred its functions to Mäntsälä. At the same time, the operational organization had been divided into profit centers. The purpose of this renewal was to develop a more profitable and flexible way of working. The final aim was the customer service-based production organization, where power and responsibility would be delegated to the floor level. In the firm, the people were talking about turning the organizational pyramid upside down.

The starting point of the project was uncertain: 20 persons in Mäntsälä and 100 in Mikkeli had lost their

jobs. Others had shortened working hours. In particular, foremen and other clerical workers were anxious about keeping their position. In addition, the top management of the enterprise regarded productivity and quality figures as being too low. The position of profit centers was not yet clarified and they were still seeking a new model of working. On the other hand, the profit centers were interested in developing groupwork and the production managers were committed to co-operation. For these reasons we decided to continue discussions: we came to an agreement about the next meeting in the Mäntsälä factory."

Describing the context of research. *'The assembly workshop, which functioned as a pilot for the new working model, manufactured electric light systems. The light systems were especially aimed at office and business environments, such as stores, hotels and restaurants. The variety of the products was changing rapidly and they were implementing a new, developing product group called Downlight.*

As a physical space the assembly workshop was a very ordinary factory hall: working stations/tables in two direct lines, doorways on opposite sides of the factory hall and corridors for forklifts. The office in the corner of the factory hall had two rooms. The foreman and the production planner were working in the first room, and the production manager was in the second room.

As so often in light assembly work in Finland, all workers were women. Their age ranged from 30 to 60 years. The average was 45 years. In this respect, the workshop was not exceptional, because persons of forty-fifty were the most common age group in the factory. The most typical educational background was completion of primary school. Only one had studied in a vocational school though not metal or electricity. Most of them had 10-20 years work experience in the organization, and some of them had made their whole work career there.

The roles of the production manager and supervisors were central to all functions in the workshop: in communication, in planning and in decision making. The contacts between units inside and outside of the workshop were occasional and restricted to the managers.

In practice, assembly work always included the same repetitive phases of work. When an assembler started to produce new series, she first read the work order. After that she looked for the parts and the components in different boxes and forklift loads and arranged them in small containers at her work station. Then she combined parts of a stem with a pneumatic screwdriver. After that she attached electrical components to the stem. Finally, the product was tested visually and with an electricity test device. After the testing she glued her distinguishing mark and the other stickers (type of device, switchboard diagram etc.) onto the finished product. The last phases were packing and transferring to the stock or shipping department. When the series was completed, the assembler reported to the foreman."

Gathering accounts. The accounts were collected from all workers, the foreman, the production planner, and the production manager. In other words, all in the workshop were interviewed. The fulfillment of the interviews was quite similar as the technique of narrative interview (Roos 1988) which consists of two sub phases: first, the interviewee is allowed to speak freely; secondly it is possible to complete the interview by presenting detailed questions. The interviews were started openly by asking, which were the most important changes from the viewpoint of the interviewed. The purpose was to make sure that the most relevant episodes would have been taken into the change story. After that the interviewer and interviewee discussed about the episodes listed in the master story.

Table 3. Parallel story telling in the case.

The example from the organizational change story	the example of parallel film editing / story-telling	The structure of parallel film editing / story-telling (compare with Table 1)
The production manager was hard pressed and tried to find solution to a better control material flow	the hunter moves his rifle from side to side, aiming off screen	Shot 1: action
The workers listened when the managing director talked about turning the organizational pyramid upside down	a bird is flying in the sky	Shot 2: action
The production manager bought	the hunter fires his rifle	Shot 1: reaction

a conveyor belt and gave notice to the workers		
The workers were highly offended, because they had not been included in the planning, despite the speeches about a new, brave co-operation	the bird is hit and falls	Shot 2: reaction

Master story and change narrative. The beginning of this chapter does not look at all like a narrative because of the use of figures and tables. However, they are needed to clarify and illustrate our ideas about master story and parallel story-telling.

In the previous master story quotation we present the sequence of activities during the first phase of the change story (Figure 2).The development project in Idman consisted of three main phases during 1992-1995: 1) the analysis of the present state, 2) the vision-oriented development phase and 3) the phase of single interve ntions.

In the next quotations we zoom in on episodes which were connected with the difficulties to understand the meaning of participatory decision-making in the very beginning of the project in January 1993. In this quot a-tion we also apply parallel story-telling (Table 3).

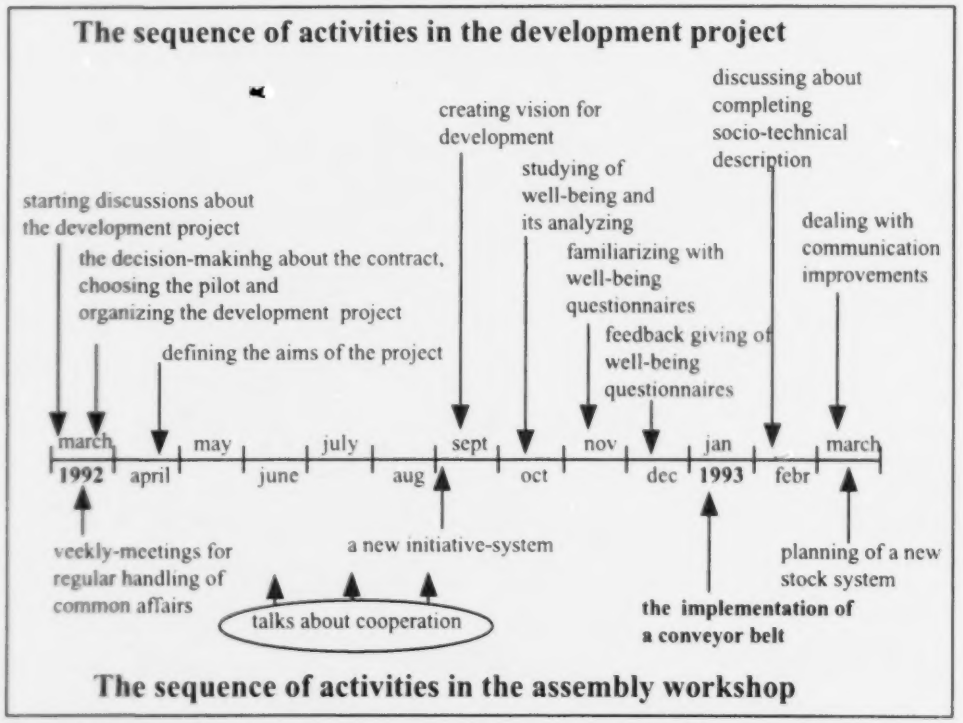


Figure 2 The first phase in the development project was an analysis of the present state.

"At the beginning of the development project the role of the project group was very educating and analytical. Background theories about socio-technical change, co-operative work-culture, the well-being of the employees and the concept of "good work" were dealt with. At the same time the variety of products was rapidly increasing and the assemblers had more and more difficulties in meeting delivery schedules. It was also commonly known, that work efficiency was low. For this reason, the representatives of the organization, especially the production manager, wanted to stop the socio-technical work description and to start making concrete improvements as soon as possible.

During the autumn of 1992 there were many talks and articles in the company magazine about co-

operation and participatory decision-making in the organization. In his New Years speech, the managing director described how the organizational pyramid had been turned upside down and power and responsibilities had been delegated to the shop floor. In the public discussions some co-operative metaphors, like 'rowing the same boat", were also presented.

I phoned the production manager in January 1993 to agree upon the time for interviews. He said that the time which I had suggested, was not good because the new conveyor belt would be implemented at the same time. The aim of this renewal was to decrease the amount of non-profitable work, to make intermediate stores smaller and to save space in the profit center. I was surprised, because there had been no discussions about this change beforehand in the project group.

In the assembly workshop the people were highly offended and frustrated, because they had not beenincluded it the planning, despite the talk about a new, co-operative activity model. They told me that the production manager had ordered the conveyor belt and had just informed the workers a few days before the implementation. Always tooting co-operation, then order without discussion'and If they want a dialogue, this is a wrong attitude,' were typical comments presented to me."

Negotiation. Negotiation was the process (before editing phase) through which the personnel read the change narrative. Then all participants - the researcher and the personnel - presented their own accounts and searched common understanding about the change process. In this case, it was quite easy to produce a common interpretation. The corrections and amendments suggested, and made, were rather details than radical changes. The possible reason for a consensus might be that the project group had written quite many interim reports before producing the change narrative.

Conclusions

When we started the method development there were no prototypes. Now it is obvious that the method is not unique: The approach presented here has a quite much in common with the work of researchers from MIT (Roth & Kleiner, 1995; Roth, 1996). They developed an approach that they called as learning history. It is aimed to enhance the organization's learning capabilities. One apparent similarity between our method and the learning history approach is their eclectic nature. They both apply different theoretical sources - the learning history form, e.g. draws upon theory and techniques from ethnography, journalism, action research, oral history and theatre.

By applying the method of narrative change accounting, we were able to produce one change narrative. However, this does not mean that the method is completed or concluded. We see this phase more as an experiment or as a starting point for discussion.

According to Ceglowski (1997), there are two issues to consider regarding the use of an experimental writing genre. The first issue is methodological, and the second is discipline-specific. The first issue is how will experimental textual forms be evaluated. She refers to Denison (1996) who suggests that researchers should check with participants to verify that the stories accurately depict their actual experience. He also recommends that these new writing formats be judged by the standards more closely aligned to art or literature.

We have tried to design our method to meet both criteria. According to our experience the negotiation between researcher and participants verify the story quite well. On the other hand, our aim has also been to meet the second criteria by using ideas of film theory and screenwriting. However, we are not satisfied with our performance in this area: there are still so many issues in this area that our method does not address, such as the questions of an interesting plot (Arijon, 1976; Blum, 1984).

Ceglowski's (1997) second issue is how will various disciplines respond to researchers who use experimental writing genres? Richardson (1996) has pointed out that, although researchers who employ such methods may be labeled as good writers, the question remains as to whether they are really doing research.

We agree that there are problems in crossing the borders of the traditional scientific discipline. However, we see that there is a real need for these kinds of narratives in adult education and we also believe that the attitude towards this kind of experimental writing is becoming more positive.

Implications to HRD. Applying the method of narrative change accounting provides benefits for organizational research and theory. Its results describe the entire change process, not just the outcomes of a certain program or intervention. The traditional pre- and post-test setting does not acquire understanding about the reasons, why some

change processes are more successful than others. The experiences, opinions, beliefs, and stories of the participants are the most crucial elements in understanding those reasons. It is also possible that by applying the method in various contexts there will occur some consistencies between different programs, organizations, etc. And this may benefit the organizational theory, as well.

The narrative accounting is applicable, when there is a crucial change taking place in the organization or across the organizations. Sometimes a change, which may seem a minor one for an external observer, could be a crucial one for them, who are involved. And it is necessary that participants of the change are voluntarily giving interviews and having negotiations with the researcher.

The nature of HRD is in changing. For instance, training, career development, and organizational deve l-opment are focused on change. Sometimes it can mean a change in cognitive structures on an individual level, but it can be an organization-wide change process, as well. Therefore, it is complicated to offer an example to which the narrative accounting will not be applicable in any circumstances.

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Colleges of Education and Internal Consultants

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Colleges of education are being reshaped for a variety of reasons. On-campus and off-campus pressures are driving the need for strategic change. However, rarely is the collective expertise of the personnel within a college of education effectively applied to its organizational change efforts. This paper provides an overview of the literature that pertains to internal consulting. It suggests ways in which faculty members may build skills and knowledge in the role of internal consultant.

Keywords: Consulting, Organizational Change, Teacher Education

I was recently reorganized. It was not a particularly pleasant experience. January, 1999, my colleagues and I attended a college of education meeting and we were informed of the seven new departments in which we would be working. No faculty meetings had been conducted to discuss forming new departments. The deans of the College had crafted this plan. A memorandum disseminated at this meeting provided the Dean's rationale for the change:

> Two questions which seem to arise are "why do we need to reorganize" and "what rationale was used in expanding the number of departments within the college?" From my first day as acting dean through today, I have continually and consistently said that as a college, we have not been organized in a matter that others, outside the university, or inside, for that matter, can understand. We also have been resting on a distinctiveness of a college of education that once excited and that has gone through several iterations of minor adjustment, but which has not changed distinctively in a manner befitting the faculty expertise that we have nor the needs of the constituencies we serve. We need a new "distinctiveness" to reposition the college in the region and nationally. These reasons, while perhaps arguable by some who will read this document, have served as the basis for the reasons for our changing.

I wondered why organizational change should occur this way. Within the college were several faculties whose members possessed considerable experience and knowledge with regard to organizational change. How could a few deans create new departments and assign faculty members to them? This phenomenon caused me to ponder how faculty members might be better utilized as internal consultants and change agents within a college of education.

Research Problem

It is not a new phenomenon for faculty members to be under-utilized as change agents within their respective colleges. Their lack of participation in the change process may be traced to their personal beliefs and actions, the leadership style of the administration, or systemic constraints of the college. However, faculty members need to be involved in the processes of change, and, as noted by Ryan and Oestreich (1991, 200), contemporary workplaces are "composed of people who expect to participate." But do faculty members possess requisite skills to participate in the change process? Howey and Zimpher (1990, 364), noting the work of Clark and Guba, observed that the "predominant governance pattern of higher education is collegial, but no one is specifically trained to engage in and foster collegiality. Few can initiate change unilaterally." Lack of skill as a change agent can be problematic for faculty members, for as Freiberg and Waxman (1990, 631) stated, faculty members can call attention to "non-supportive conditions and others as the source of their problems, but, in the final analysis, change must be instituted from within." Faculty members might be unaware of how they can function as internal consultants within their colleges. They may possess content knowledge and experience regarding organizational change, but they may not possess knowledge and skills necessary to function as internal consultants. This manuscript provides an overview of literature pertinent to internal consulting and poses suggestions for faculty members who may serve as internal consultants.

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Theoretical Framework

It is interesting to compare the trauma that colleges of education have faced during the past twenty years and the turbulence experienced by businesses and industries during this same time period. Organizations were reeling during the 1980s from reverberations of a very chaotic business environment. Similar to small and large businesses, colleges of education faced uncertainties as they attempted to interpret their markets and make strategic decisions. Organizational leaders of both the public and private sector struggled tounderstand ambiguous and oftentimes contradictory signals conveyed to them by their environments. Deans of colleges of education faced perilous times, as they experienced shrinking revenues, competition for students, and diminished political clout (both on and off campus).

It seemed as though the tools being applied by these leaders were increasingly cumbersome and ineffective. Strategic planning, a method that many large organizations implemented during this timperiod, produced long-term plans that were often obsolete by the time the planning document was punched for a three ring binder. Leaders wondered what strategies and processes would allow their organizations (both public and private) to adapt to a freewheeling environment, flex in response to external pressures, and react swiftly to market driven changes (Roth, 1994).

Select writers emerged in the 1990s who espoused a different set of ideas for enhancing organizational survival. These writers questioned an organization's reliance on strategic plans that were restrictive in their applications and based on nebulous scenarios of the future. Writers such asSenge (1990), Watkins and Marsick (1993), Marquardt and Reynolds (1994), and Redding and Catalanello (1994) advocated thatlearning is a key competitive advantage that allows organizations to survive the uncertainties of the global economic environment. These authors affirmed learning -- individual, team, and organizational -- as a means of keeping organizations responsive and adaptive to the hazards of unforeseen internal and external conditions.

It is ironic that colleges of education -- bastions of expertise on learning -- rarely tap into that reservoir of collective expertise when orchestrating organizational change. Many business leaders, on the other hand, viewlearning *in the workplace* as a key business strategy. Organizational learning is considered by many leaders to be an important part of the strategic business plan.

Research Design and Questions

The research method is literature review and analysis. Research questions include:

- What are the functional roles of internal consultants?
- How might internal and external consultant roles be meshed within a college of education?
- What strategies and behaviors might faculty members apply as internal change agents?
- How might faculty members collaborate with others as internal consultants?

Definition and Description of Internal Consulting

Jargon and terminology can sometimes be intimidating as one attempts to find meaning in a concept. The following definitions are offered to help clarify the distinction between types of consultantsLippitt and Lippitt, 1984).

> The *internal consultant*. A helper (professional or nonprofessional) who is considered a member of the client system or a closely related system. (5.7)

The *external consultant*. A helper (usually professional) who has a minimal or no organizational/political relationship with the client system. (5.7)

The *internal - external consultant*. A helper (usually professional) who is located at the headquarters of an organization and is "sent out" to field units for consultant work. The consultant is an "insider" to the total system but an outsider to the client system. (5.7)

Internal consultants may be called upon to fulfill a variety of roles for an organization. These roles will not be described in detail in this paper. However, readers are encouraged to review the writing oLippitt and Lippitt (1977) for an examination of the following roles objective observer, process counselor, fact finder, identifier of alternatives and linker to resources, joint problem solver, trainer/educator, information specialist, and advocate.Behaviors associated with these consulting roles were further delineated by Newell (1988) in an article that identified a need for more innovation and responsiveness in the workplace.

Differences between the roles of internal and external consultants are worth noting. The success of the consultant will be judged by how he/she performs within a setting or context. The consultant will function and react differently, hinging

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upon whether he/she is a member of the organization. If the consultant is an "insider," then this individual will have privileged interpretations of the work environment that may be unbeknownst to an outsider. An internal consultant realizes he/she will have to stay-on with the organization and work with peer workers upon completion of the internal consulting assignment. This is often the case within colleges of education, because the workers (especially tenure accruing positions) are typically less mobile than workers in many other types of occupations.

An external consultant can walk away from the organization after the contractual obligation is fulfilled. Therefore, the external consultant may chose to be more objective, controversial, and direct with his/her interactions with workers and management. The internal consultant may be more guarded with his/her assertions in fear of future reprisals by fellow workers or supervisors. Within the context of a college of education, this issue has special significance. Faculty members are likely to be long term employees who have histories and shared understandings with others in the college. Baggage issues prevail within colleges of education, and turf battles have been won and lost by faculty members over the years.

Both the internal consultant and the external consultant will have reasons for their reactions to a client situation. Lippitt and Lippitt (1977) noted that the internal consultant must deal with the challenge of gaining credibility within the organization. In some cases, the external consultant -- viewed as the "outside expert" -- begins the consulting assignment with ascribed respect. On the other hand, the external consultant may experiencdifficulty gaining entry to an organization, whereas entry to the organization should not be as troublesome for the internal consultant. The internal consultant might be confronted with demands of over-dependency from the organization, whereas the external consultant may prematurely finish his/her work with the organization without allowing sufficient continuity and follow-up work. For faculty members who might serve in an internal consulting role, theywill most likely be expected to continue with their "normal" duties. In other words, teaching, research and service roles will continue for them as they try to function as change agents within a college of education.

Linking Internal and External Consultants

Perhaps the most effective consulting situation is the linking of internal and external consulting roles. Both internal and external consultants have unique advantages and barriers they face with each new assignment. Linking external and internal consultants in a team-consulting relationship may accentuate the advantages that each consultant can bring to a task. In this manner, the strengths and limitations of each consulting role can be acknowledged, dealt with, and strategies may be devised that capitalize on the capabilities of each role (Lippitt and Lippitt, 1984). Additional rationale for teaming-up internal and external consultants was provided by Blake and Mouton (1983):

The internal consultant, knowing the situation more intimately than the external consultant, can aid the external consultant to gain insight as to what goes on in the organization. Thus, the external consultant's knowledge of the organization is deepened through the insight that can be made available to him or her by the internal consultant.

By virtue of his or her continuity, the internal consultant can aid the organization through implementation of agreed-upon next steps. A third basis for collaboration is that the internal consultant may see important confrontations that need to take place, but by virtue of his or her position in the hierarchy, it is unsound to attempt such prescriptions or confrontations. Nonetheless, the internal consultant can create the conditions under which the external consultant can implement these interventions. In other words, the external consultant can often do work in levels of hierarchy that are off limits to the internal consultant. (565)

How might faculty members, functioning as internal consultants, be paired-up with an external consultant? This type of linkage may occur via several tactics (Lippitt and Lippitt, 1977, 140):

- Sometimes the internal consultant obtains the sanction to locate an external consultant and initiates the teamwork.
- Sometimes the external consultant identifies a potential collaborator inside the client system and initiates the invitation to team up.
- Sometimes the internal consultant leaves the employment of the client system but continues to serve from the outside as a consultant, using links to associates remaining inside the client system.
- Sometimes an outside consultant "moves in" for a while, as an adjunct staff member, with a temporary office and secretary.
- In a few cases, a wise administrator has asked his [sic] internal staff consultant to locate an external resource person who would best complement him or her with skills needed to provide the help required.

Strategies and Behaviors of the Internal Consultant

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Whether functioning as an internal or external consultant, Reynolds and Nadler (1993, 15) explained the necessity for consultants to distance themselves from clients:

> Because of competence, experience, status, regulation, or a combination of these, the client views the consultant as capable of providing needed information, support, or help. The consultant is always external to the client system; i.e., the unit, group, or person seeking help. However, the consultant may be internal to the larger organization in which the client is an employee. Therefore, sometimes the consultant is a physical insider but always a psychological outsider. The power of the internal consultant, while influenced by the political or structural focus of the professional group or unit, is determined primarily by earned influence: Competence, ideas, acceptance, and one's role.

Along with the aforementioned earned influence, internal consultants must recognize the danger zones of the organizational chart. McDermott (1986) stressed that internal consultants must have skills at dealing with political issues and situations within the various levels of the organization. For faculty members who function as change agents, this means that they should acquire strategic knowledge of the college and the university, such as mission and vision statements, long and short range goals, characteristics of the organizational culture of the university, and so forth. This complex array of knowledge sets requires behaviors that will permit effective actions in a variety of contexts. Faculty members who focus on process consultation within a college of education will be attempting to help others solve problems rather than trying to provide the solutions themselves (Ovaice and Wentling, 1999). What actions might help faculty members in these endeavors? Adapted from the work of Swartz (1977), the following behaviors were suggested for internal consultants by Lippitt and Lippitt (1984):

- Behave like an external consultant This requires a careful role clarification between consultant and client. In addition, a strong psychological contract characterized by mutual trust and openness is a must before entering any consulting relationship.
- Do some outside (external) consulting Whether done for a fee or free, external experience can broaden the perspective, increase internal credibility, and increase consultant confidence. Outside experience provides an arena for experimentation. In some instances, it can provide a significant part of the financial security required to support the internal consultant when it is found appropriate to confront the internal client system.
- Be proactive and aggressive at least 25% of the time It is important for the internal consultant to introduce ideas for change as well as to help clients respond to unplanned change. "Influence power" accrues to the consistent, responsible innovator.
- Focus on the job to be done The internal consultant survives and grows in direct proportion to the client's effectiveness in getting the job done. All consulting activities - even career consulting - must focus on the job to be done and must use a results oriented approach.
- Be your own person No one else owns you. No one manipulates you. No one can change you any more than you can change them. Be courageous, competent, skilled, diagnostic, and professional. (5.9)

A Collaborative Approach for Internal Consulting

Given that internal consultants and clients both operate with strengths and weaknesses, why not bring them together as a problem solving team that can help a college of education cope with change? Cash and Minter (1979, September) describe the differences between two common approaches for the provision of consulting. The process-consultation model utilizes group involvement and participation by members of the client organization. Stakeholders within the organization are involved in the diagnosis and problem solving stages of the consulting process. The consultant helps the client organization with the application of diagnostic tools, and the client organization helps to identify processes that need improvement.

Cash and Minter (1979) describe the doctor-patient model as one in which the consultant diagnoses the problems and also proposes solutions for the client organization. In this relationship, there is minimal involvement of the client organization in the consulting process. Each of the models described by Cash and Minter have advantages and disadvantages. Selecting one model over the other depends a great deal on contextual factors of the client organization. Perhaps most faculty members would advocate the process-consultation model, but this approach would make special demands on a college of education. The college might not have the fiscal resources, time or personnel to be partners in the consulting process. From an internal consulting perspective, the faculty member must be cognizant of the readiness and/or willingness of the college of education to use a participatory process.

Sherwood (1982) noted that a collaborative approach to consulting differed from more traditional approaches in three ways. First, in deciding the nature of the client's problem, the consultant works with the client to jointly ascertain

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problems confronting the organization. Second,assumptions are not made by the consultant regarding the quality of the available information. The client and consultant work together to determine the amount and kinds of information needed for the consulting process to be effective. Third, the reporting of conclusions and recommendations are not limited to the key stakeholders of the organization. Instead, the findings are shared with people who provided information and input during the data gathering stage. Sherwood cautions the internal consultant that one must continually clarify the expectations of the key stakeholders of the client organization. It must be made clear that the consultant is not the "all knowing expert." In other words, for the faculty member, he/she must continuously reaffirm this position and clarify expectations of the administration and other stakeholders within the college of education.

The issue of participation of stakeholders of a college of education is a critical pointKirkpatrick (1985) notedthat levels of acceptance or resistance to change within a work environment is related to the degree of participation in the intervention strategy. Workers are apt to resent a suggested change if they have not been asked for their input, especially if they believe they could have made a good contribution. Faculty members are certainly not different in this respect. On the other hand, employees who have been asked for their input are more likely to view the recommended changes more favorably. And, according toKirkpatrick, it is not so much whether their ideas were implemented as part of the change. The key issue is involving personnel in the change process.Kirkpatrick (1985) identified three keys for managing change:

- Empathy
  - Know your people.
  - Know why some people resent/resist change while others accept/welcome it.
  - Anticipate how each person affected will react to a contemplated change.
- Communication
  - Let people know as far in advance as practical.
  - Provide the reasons "why" as well as the "what" and the "how."
  - Be sure they understand.
- Participation
  - Before a decision to change is final, get input from those involved.
  - Listen to them and carefully consider their opinions as well as the facts.
  - To the extent possible, use their input in making the decision.
  - If their input is not used, be sure to tell them why it wasn't used.
  - Give them credit. (256-257)

HRD professors, in particular, have a history of facilitating collaborative learning. These roles have included helping individuals work together, examine their progress, reflect on their actions, and make adjustments to their performance based on these reflections. Collaborative learning, as an example, is a popular learning strategy that HRD professors impart to their students.

How might HRD professors and graduate students increase and improve levels of peer participation in the change efforts of colleges of education? Empowered work teams, action learningroups, and knowledge and skill development as internal consultants can all contribute to improvements in peer participation. Most HRD professors have experience with these intervention methods. They must come forward with their skills, volunteer their talents, and become proactive participants in the change process.

Issues with the Internal Consulting Role

Faculty members will need to address some pressing concerns about their fit with an internal consulting role. This issue is probably more complicated for the internal consultant than for the external consultant. The internal consultant must not only address the technical skills required for the job, but also must recognize the political and ethical issues of taking on certain internal consulting assignments. And when it comes to organizational change, colleges of education are definitely laden with political minefields. Both internal and external consultants are apt to learn confidential information that has ramifications that reach far beyond the realms of his/her regular work assignment. Dyer (1984) alluded to this issue:

> The consultant is first and always an individual with values, habits, goals, attitudes, needs, and skills. Does this complexity of human attributes add up to the kind of person a client wants poking around in the organization? A consultant cannot help but be a role model for people in the client system watching how problems are uncovered and solved. The client would be well advised to gather data about the consultant regarding his or her personality as well as professional competence. Consultants who use the client to meet their own needs, whose values are not consistent with the values of the client system, who do not recognize their limitations, or who try to ingratiate themselves with clients rather than confront the issues

probably do more harm than good. (184)

These points by Dyer are aligned with how Kellogg (1987) described the consulting/client relationship. She maintained that both internal and external consultants can improve the quality of their relationships with clients by focusing on three processes:

- The Matching Process. Is there a personal fit between the consultant and the client? Do the two have the same goals for the project? Are the consultant's skills well matched to the client's needs?
- The Contracting Process. Does the contract contain sufficient detail about what the consultant will do and what is expected of the client? Can the project be broken down into stages, so that a shorter-term project is contracted for first?
- The Communication Process. What can the consultant do to reduce the client's defensiveness? How can the consultant and client schedule more opportunities to talk with each other and to share information? (253)

Lippitt and Lippitt (1977) noted that regardless of the role played by the consultant, he/she will be struggling with decisions about the intervention and how to be most helpful. They noted the types of dilemmas that consultants often confront and offered the following queries as examples:

- Shall I question the client's formulation of the need for help?
- How can I stimulate awareness of a need for help which seems to be missing?
- How can I appropriately reduce "over-expectation" about what I can offer in the way of help?
- How can I call attention to the self-defeating use of power? (139)

Internal Consulting: Implications for Faculty Members

The purpose of this manuscript was to explore facets of internal consulting within organizations from a literature base that spanned several decades. Hopefully, the review of this literature can be helpful to faculty members of colleges of education who are engaged in college restructuring. Internal consultants must operate within a socio-technical system. A mechanistic approach, similar to following a recipe out of a cookbook will not serve the chaos and ill-structured problems that are commonplace in colleges of education. Faculty members, especially HRD professors who are well versed in serving the learning needs of individuals, recognize that real people and their working lives are effected by organizational change -- it is not just about the lines and boxes of an organizational chart.

Internal consultants walk an intervention tight-rope. On the one hand, the internal consultant must insure that stakeholders of the organization do not "look bad" in the change process. On the other hand, the internal consultant must not prostitute his/her own standards in the process. The range of issues on this tight rope are comparable to the issues addressed in the *AHRD Standards on Ethics and Integrity* (Burns et al., 1999). An internal consultant must strive for an optimum balance between involvement and detachment. This requires the internal consultant to make frequent checks of his/her own performance, skills and interactions in a client-centered yet self-restraining posture (Reynolds and Nadler, 1993).

Although they possess content knowledge that can help a college of education with its changes efforts, perhaps it should not be assumed that professors have sufficient consulting skills to be effective helpers. Colleges of education may need to plan and deliver consultancy skills training courses that would allow their internal knowledge to be released toward organizational change (Short, Collinson and Scrivener, 1999). Another approach might be to consider adapting a performance consulting model that might bring HRD professors and graduate students into a collaborative partnership with the college of education (Holton, Redmann, Edwards, and Fairchild, 1998). This type of formal arrangement might be best suited to apply the knowledge of HRD professors and graduate students in a way that is non-threatening to other college of education personnel. Much is at stake with the reorganization of colleges. The survival of HRD graduate and undergraduate programs is dependent upon the well being of the colleges within which they are housed.

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